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ABSTRACT

This ninth chapter in "Elementary School Counseling in a Changing World" contains four journal articles on ways that counselors can work to change children's misbehavior and foster productive behavior. "Changing Student Attitudes and Behavior Through Group Counseling" by Robert Myrick and R. Wiley Dixon presents results of a study showing that fifth- and sixth-grade students who participated in a structured counseling group improved their attitudes toward school and their academic achievement. "Project Explore: An Activity-Based Counseling Group" by Kevin Duncan, David Beck, and Richard Granum reports on a 9-week activity group that was effective in improving behaviors related to problem solving, communications, and group cooperation. "Efficacy of Counseling Services in Decreasing Behavior Problems of Elementary School Children" by Harriet Cobb and Herbert Richards examines a series of interventions that elementary school counselors can implement to decrease behavior problems of children. "The Effects of Classroom Meetings on Self-Concept and Behavior" by Sandra Sorsdahl and Robert Sanche concludes, from a 20-week study, that classroom meetings may be effective as both a treatment technique for students with behavior problems and as a technique for the prevention of problem behavior. The chapter concludes with a set of issues for elementary school counselors to consider about children's behavior in a changing world.
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CHAPTER 9

CHILDREN'S BEHAVIOR IN A CHANGING WORLD

Children's behavior, both in and out of school, is an important concern of parents and educators. The popular media has documented seemingly wide-spread school absenteeism and delinquency among our nation's youth. How to change children's misbehavior and to foster productive behavior are concerns of elementary school counselors. The techniques available to parents, teachers, and elementary school counselors for managing children's behavior are numerous. The techniques include modeling, positive reinforcement, behavior contracting, and desensitization. These behavioral change procedures have been thoroughly tested. Although the application of these methods is often difficult, the collaborative efforts of educators and parents in applying behavioral techniques eases some of the difficulties and increases the chances of success. This chapter presents counseling procedures that will continue to be used in the 1990s to help make needed changes in children's behavior.

Chapter 9 begins with the useful study, "Changing Student Attitudes and Behavior Through Group Counseling." Results of the study showed that 5th- and 6th-grade students improved their attitudes toward school from participation in a structured counseling group and consequently, behaved in ways that resulted in improved academic achievement.

The next article, "Project Explore: An Activity-Based Counseling Group," illustrates the usefulness of another type of counseling group to improve children's behavior. The authors describe creative group activities with such intriguing titles as "People Pyramids," "Yurt Circle," "Carabiner Walk," "Reach for the Sky," and "Blindfold Soccer." The authors report that this 9-week

activity group was fun, well received by clients, and effective in improving behaviors related to problem solving, communications, and group cooperation.

The third article in this chapter examines a series of interventions elementary school counselors can implement to decrease behavior problems of children. These interventions include classroom guidance sessions, small group counseling sessions, and consultation with teachers. The authors found that students who received a combination of these treatment procedures improved their scores on a behavior problem checklist.

The effects of classroom meetings on students' behavior at school is the topic of the final article in Chapter 9. The authors concluded from their 20-week study that "classroom meetings have potential not only as a treatment technique for children with behavioral problems but also as a technique in the prevention of problem behavior."

Changing Student Attitudes and Behavior Through Group Counseling

**Robert D. Myrick
R. Wiley Dixon**

Students with positive school attitudes tend to obtain higher school grades. Attitudes toward school also influence performance on standardized achievement tests (Brodie, 1964; Gable, Roberts, & Owen, 1977; Neale, Gill, & Tismer, 1970; Williams, 1970). In contrast, students who have negative attitudes about themselves and school often have problems learning. They perform poorly in class and on standardized tests. In addition, they frequently disrupt or distract others from learning effectively and become discipline referrals.

A review of the professional literature, including articles published in a variety of journals, indicates that counselor intervention with students who have negative attitudes has been a neglected topic for several years. The few studies on the topic lacked adequate experimental designs and provided little evidence that counselors were effective in altering negative attitudes and related behaviors. For example, Gutsch and Bellamy (1966) attempted to show that counselors, through group sessions, could help change behavior. Their study, however, was inconclusive because it involved only 16 students, 8 each in a control group and an experimental group. Some of their conclusions were based on subgroups of 4 students each, and this created problems in the analysis of the data. Petty (1965) described some ideas for improving attitude and citizenship in school but provided no supporting data. Lodato, Sokoloff, and Schwartz (1964) studied four elementary and two junior high school groups and concluded that group counseling could modify attitudes in slow learners. Yet, they also provided no supporting data.

Group counseling apparently affected student attitudes and grade point averages (GPAs) in one study (Benson & Blocher, 1967), but the group process was not clearly described. In a similar study (Wittmer, 1969), a combination of tutoring and counseling was used with 18 underachieving seventh grade students. There was no control group, however, and it was not possible to tell whether counseling or tutoring was the contributing factor for improved attitudes and GPAs. In a later study, Hallwell, Musella, and Silvino (1970) found only slight improvement in attitudes and no significant change in GPAs. Krivatsy-O'Hara, Reed, and Davenport (1978) reported that group counseling could be effective with potential high school dropouts. There was no control

group. Their conclusions were based on anonymous questionnaires from 51 students, and they did not provide details about the counseling sessions.

There is a need for more counselors to report data regarding their effectiveness with students who have negative attitudes about school. There is also a need for these data to come from carefully designed experimental studies. Finally, there is a need for counselors to describe the counseling procedures they have used.

Counselors Working Together

Thirteen school counselors in Orange County, Florida, were concerned about students who had negative school attitudes. They noted that school achievement was low among these students and that teachers frequently asked for assistance in bringing about some kind of change. With university and county staff assisting them during after-school meetings, the counselors developed a group counseling strategy and an instrument for measuring behavior change. They agreed to work together in a collaborative study.

During their first meeting, the counselors listed observable behaviors of students who had negative attitudes about school. How can one tell whether a student has a negative attitude? A list of classroom behaviors related to negative attitude was obtained, and the items were rank ordered in terms of their effect on school achievement. This resulted in six behaviors, which were placed on a checklist so that teachers could report student behavior. Subsequent planning meetings focused on (a) identifying and selecting target students for counseling and study, (b) developing some structured group counseling sessions, (c) discussing and role-playing group leadership skills, and (d) planning the collection of data for the study.

Experimental Procedures

Population and Sample

After reviewing school records and consulting with teachers, the counselors identified 12 students (grades 5–6), in their respective schools, whose attitudes needed improvement. Of these, 6 were randomly assigned to participate in a series of group counseling sessions. The other 6 served as a comparison group and received counseling at a later date. The two groups in each of the schools enabled counselors to assess the effectiveness of group counseling.

The Counselor Intervention

A series of six small-group counseling sessions was carefully outlined and practiced in the counselor meetings so that all counselors would use the same activities and similar leadership skills. In general, the group sessions lasted about 30–45 minutes and consisted of the following:

Session 1: Feelings About School. After explaining that the purpose of the group was to help students think more about themselves and school, counselors used a handmade set of cards with feeling words written on them to help members disclose their ideas and feelings. Cards were distributed randomly, and the students discussed the meanings of the words—for example: “What does the word *disappointment* mean to you?” “Is that a pleasant or unpleasant feeling?” “How can you tell whether a person feels that way?” “Have you ever seen someone who felt that way?” “Have you ever felt that way?” The feeling words were also listed on a large piece of paper and used later for reference. Other words were added as they came up in following sessions.

Session 2: Illustrated Tee Shirt. In this session, the students drew symbols on a picture of a “tee shirt” that was divided into five sections. “Draw a little picture or symbol that . . . (a) tells something about this school, (b) represents something you would like to change about school, (c) tells what you like about school, and (d) shows one thing about yourself that you would like to change or improve on, and write three words that teachers might use to describe you.” This activity encouraged group members to continue voicing their opinions and feelings about school. It also gave counselors an opportunity to help group members understand how feelings are related to behaviors in school. For instance, when the students discussed how teachers might describe them, the counselors asked: “What do you do that makes them see you that way?” “If you wanted to be described differently, what would you have to do?”

Session 3: Dear Abby. The group activity began when a counselor stated:

Think of a problem that you are having in school . . . or perhaps a problem that someone you know is having . . . or maybe a problem that students your age have in school that might be interesting to discuss. Write them down on these small pieces of paper and do not sign your name. I will collect them, and then we will discuss some of them in our group.

After reading a problem aloud, the counselor stated, “If you had a problem like this, how would you feel?” Later, “Well, if you had these feelings, how might you behave?” Still later, “What could a person do in a situation like this?”

Group members learned that they were not alone in their feelings about school. This session also led to discussions about the consequences of behavior and alternative actions. At this point, however, primary attention was on how feelings and behaviors are related to school problems.

Session 4: Giving and Receiving Feedback. Group members learned a three-step feedback model: (a) be specific about the behavior you see or hear, (b) tell how it makes you feel, and (c) tell what your feelings make you want to do (Myrick & Emey, 1978). The students first practiced by thinking of examples and talking to an empty chair. Then, each identified a teacher or classmate to whom positive feedback might be given during the coming week. This session encouraged a positive focus in school and helped the students act positively in the school environment.

Session 5: Some First Steps. First, reports of how the feedback model worked outside the group were heard, and each member identified "one thing about myself that I want to improve." Second, each described a first step that might be taken, as group members listened and offered other suggestions as to how a person might get started. The students were encouraged to begin their first step that week.

Session 6: Being Positive. The session began with students describing what happened to them during the week when they tried to take their first steps. During the second part of the session, the group members, including the counselor, took a turn in the "cool seat," where they received compliments from others. The members were to say aloud anything positive that came to mind about a student who was sitting in the cool seat chair. This helped the group end on a positive note.

The Criterion Measure

All students in the study were rated by their teachers on a classroom behavior checklist. It consisted of six items on a 5-point Likert-type scale (from "Strongly Agree" to "Strongly Disagree"). These items were those identified by the counselors as behaviors related to attitudes about the school that affected achievement: (a) contributes to discussion, (b) starts assignments, (c) follows directions and school rules, (d) completes assignments, (e) has materials ready to work, and (f) accepts helpful corrections and suggestions. The instrument was administered prior to and after group counseling.

A second instrument was given only to those students who participated in group counseling. They reported their perceptions of the experience on a Likert-type scale by responding to six items. The group experience (a) increased my understanding of others, (b) affected my behavior outside the group, (c) increased my understanding of self, and (d) helped me like school better. They

were also asked (e) if they would recommend the group to others and (f) if they disliked being in the group.

The Findings

Ten of the counselors provided data for the study. Data were complete on 59 students who received counseling and 59 students who did not ($N = 118$). To statistically control for any initial between-group differences, an analysis of covariance procedure (ANCOVA), with the premeasure used as a covariate, was used to examine the data. It was hypothesized that group counseling would make a difference and that those receiving counseling would make significant gains in their classroom behavior.

The Classroom Behavior Checklist

The statistical analysis of classroom behavior, as rated by teachers, showed a significant difference (.05 level of confidence) between the two comparison groups of students in the study. Those students who received group counseling improved their classroom behavior significantly more than those who did not receive group counseling ($F = 8.48, p < .001$). The analysis also showed that group counseling was effective across sex of student and schools, suggesting that both boys and girls benefited regardless of school or counselor.

Student Perceptions

An analysis was also made with a follow-up instrument that was administered to students who participated in the group counseling sessions. Data were received from 42 students. Of these, 72% reported that the group increased their understanding of themselves, and 86% said it helped them gain a better understanding of others. In addition, 62% indicated that the experience helped change their behavior outside the group, and 60% said that they liked school better as a result of the group. Approximately 81% recommended a similar group to other students. Finally, the students also expressed their ideas by writing what they liked best and least about the group, what they would say about the group, and what they had learned. This information is provided in the boxed material.

It can be seen that in general, the students liked the opportunity to share their ideas and feelings. They liked learning about themselves and others through the group. The group enabled them to disclose feelings about themselves, others, and school. It also helped them obtain feedback from others. It

Student Likes and Dislikes

What I Liked Best (the group sessions):

They helped me with my work
I liked the activities we did and hope we can meet again
Getting out of class
Being allowed to talk
Talking together
Giving feedback to each other
Making more friends
Getting to understand things better
Getting to know some of my friends in the group a little better

I Learned:

That I hardly ever get feedback
How to control my temper
Showed me that you can get more friends by being nice
How to ask and give people information
How to control my attitude
To be kind to others and nice
To think positive about school
To be considerate of others
To go to school and to be a better student

What I Liked Least:

Only staying 20 minutes
Writing things
Nothing, I liked everything
The time we met
Leaving the group
Didn't have enough time together
When the group was over
When we all acted up

What I Would Say About Our Group:

It is a happy group
I liked it and if you ever have a chance to go, then go
You learn to understand things better
It was fun and we had a good teacher
This class is real fun

encouraged them to think about their behavior in school, including something on which they could improve.

Not everyone liked being in the group (10%). Some disliked their group because of a particular person. As expected, these students not only have negative attitudes about school but about themselves and others. Yet, the things

students disliked most tended to focus on the operational procedures needed to bring the group together. "There wasn't enough time" and "The group is ending" were the two most expressed dislikes, which is in reality a positive vote for the group experience.

Conclusion

Principals, teachers, and parents often view school adjustment and discipline as one of the most important goals of a school guidance program. Positive attitudes about school and about achieving behaviors in the classroom are seen as essential if students are to learn effectively and efficiently. Thus, it is surprising that so little attention in the counseling literature has been directed to such an important issue as working with students who have negative school attitudes. What are counselors doing to assist students who are performing poorly in school because of their attitudes?

This study demonstrated that counselors can help. The structured series of group sessions was effective. Students liked the experience, and they were aware of positive changes in themselves. Teachers reported differences in student classroom behavior, especially those related to achievement.

In addition, the counselors in this study enjoyed working together on a counselor project. They shared ideas, pooled information, practiced skills, and planned an accountability study in which they could all participate. They felt more energized and enthusiastic about their work. Collaborating together helped them focus on a special population that needed attention and that benefited from counselor intervention.

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Project Explore: An Activity-Based Counseling Group

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Children referred to school counselors often exhibit problem behaviors, such as acting out, underachieving, or being withdrawn. A look beyond the symptoms reveals that poorly developed skills in problem solving, communication, and cooperation exacerbate their problems and impede efforts to remediate the difficulties. These skill deficits must be eliminated, because students need to develop the basic tools for coping in society (Goldstein, Sprafkin, Gershaw, & Klein, 1980). Traditional individual and group counseling interventions are often ineffective when dealing with these skill problems (Goldstein et al., 1980). Innovative approaches to counseling need to be developed to help overcome these impediments (Anderson & Otto, 1984). The development of these basic skills may enhance the likelihood that future counseling will be successful. We designed an action-oriented group process that would engage children physically, cognitively, and emotionally to develop their basic skills.

The group process has been used with handicapped students at Saint Joseph's Children's Home, a residential treatment center, and at Torrington Middle School, Torrington, Wyoming, with both handicapped and nonhandicapped students. Participants have been boys and girls between the ages of 8 and 14. Group size has varied from a low of 6 to a high of 22 participants. The group-format activities and processing techniques have undergone four successive modifications over a 2-year period.

The purpose of this article is to share the activities and processing format as they currently exist and discuss the student outcomes that have been observed.

Format

A five-step procedure is used to direct each activity and the group processing. First, the counselor describes the nature of the activity to be attempted and provides a demonstration when appropriate. Second, the students engage in the activity while the counselor observes the interactions within the group. Third, after allowing a few trials, the facilitator stops the actions and begins a

processing segment. Initially, the processing is directed toward discussing how the clients attempted to complete the task. Communication styles and participant roles are discussed.

After this processing phase, the counselor asks each student to make a commitment to a specific behavior leading to the successful completion of the task. Fourth, the clients again attempt to complete the task, and fifth, the action is stopped and discussion resumes. Comparisons are made between the students' first and second attempts to solve the problem (Steps 2 & 4), and particular emphasis is placed on their emotional responses. Parallels are then drawn between current emotions and other life experiences in which they experienced similar emotions. At this point, either the group concludes, or a second activity is presented and the group continues, following the same format.

Videotaping was used in some group sessions. It provided an opportunity for peers to identify roles and behavior patterns. The students seemed to enjoy seeing themselves. We found this to be a valuable source of feedback for the group and a means of processing the group dynamics.

Activities

This group is based on activities. Space and equipment requirements must be considered. Some activities dictate that a large open space be available such as a gymnasium or outdoor play area, but other activities can be done in a small room. Props are generally objects readily found in a school setting, but certain activities necessitate a minimal amount of simple construction. Caution must be exercised to limit risk of injury during these activities. The removal of eyeglasses, watches, and even shoes may be prudent, as is the use of spotters or crash mats.

Described below is a representative sample of activities used. The number of activities needed per session depends on the nature of the activity and the amount of time available for the group. The verbal abilities of clients will affect the amount of time spent in processing. If meetings are held once per week for 1 hour, approximately 15 activities are needed during a 9-week quarter.

Bump. Select either bean bags or foam balls and divide the participants into groups of three. One client tosses the object and the other two catch it while holding their hands behind their backs. Once they catch the object, they must carry it a determined distance. The counselor can vary the activity by placing the catcher in different positions, e.g., back to back. (Rohnke, 1977).

Ball Toss. All players sit in a very close circle, shoulder to shoulder. The object of the game is to pass a ball from lap to lap without the use of hands (Sobel, 1983).

All Aboard. This requires a small platform or sturdy table not quite big enough to accommodate the group. Tell all group members to get on the platform and stay on it for 5 seconds (Rohnke, 1977).

People Pyramids. The object is to build pyramids. Traditional triangle shapes and circular shapes should be attempted (Fluegelman, 1976).

Four Pointers. The object is to get the group to move from point A to point B with only six supporting points (feet, arms, or knees) touching the ground. Distance to be traveled, number of supporting points, and number of contestants can be varied depending on the size or skill level of the group (Rohnke, 1977).

Yurt Circle. An even number of players form a tight, shoulder-to-shoulder circle while holding hands. Every other person is designated as an "in" or an "out." On command, the "ins" lean inward, and the "outs" lean outward simultaneously. Once they are stable in this position, on command, the "ins" and "outs" simultaneously lean in opposite directions (Fluegelman, 1981).

Carabiner Walk. While standing, participants gather together in a bunch and are then encircled by a length of soft rope. Working together, they move to a particular location. Have the participants learn something new about another person in the group as they do this (Rohnke, 1977).

Pass and Catch. Have the players line up in two parallel lines, each facing the other, about 10 feet apart. The first person in one line throws a ball to the person directly opposite him or her, then runs to the end of his or her respective line. Repeat until all have had a turn. A variation involves repeating the process until the line moves from one point to another (Sobel, 1983).

Reach for the Sky. Group members form a human ladder and place a chalk mark as high as they can on a wall or tall tree. This can be done with pairs, groups of three, or the entire group (Rohnke, 1977).

Stand Up. Players sit back-to-back with a partner with their elbows interlocked; both have their knees bent. The object is to stand up. Variations include accomplishing the same task with three, four, or five players (Fluegelman, 1976).

Trolley. Four participants glide from point A to B, each using two 8-foot 2 x 4's as skis and eight 4-foot lengths of rope attached at 2-foot intervals as ski poles. Doing this backwards is even harder (Rohnke, 1977).

Willow in the Wind. A group of six to eight players forms a tight circle around a person standing in the center. The person in the center stands with eyes closed and arms crossed over the chest. The players forming the circle gently push the person back and forth so the person in the center sways in the breeze but is not blown over (Fluegelman, 1981).

Leaning Tower. Using 10 to 50 styrofoam cups, the group tries to create the largest tower possible. The students can take turns adding one cup at a time, or they can designate a crew chief to direct the design of the construction from a blueprint, with his or her back to the group.

I Like You Because. All group members sit on chairs in a circle except one, who stands in the middle. The person in the middle touches a person in the circle and says "I like you because. . . ." (and names an attribute of the person, e.g., kindness, sense of humor) "and because. . . ." (names something else tangible, e.g., you are wearing a sweater), at which time all who are wearing sweaters and the person in the middle scramble for another chair. The person left without a chair repeats the process.

Cooperation by Design. This exercise takes only a few hundred feet of rope or string, a large area, and a group to hold the rope or string. The players try to create various shapes and emotions without talking.

Almost Infinite Circle. Using two lengths of yarn, pairs of participants are interlocked by tying the ends of the yarn to each person's wrists. They try to free themselves without cutting the yarn or breaking it (Rohnke, 1977).

Blindfold Soccer. This is just a simple game of soccer, except that players are in pairs and one is blindfolded. The sighted player directs the blindfolded player, who kicks the ball. The activity can be varied by having the player kick the ball to a specific point (Rohnke, 1977).

Old Faithfuls. Trust walks and trust falls remain two well-liked activities.

Co-Kicks. The game is traditional soccer, with one minor exception. All players are paired with a teammate, and the two are tied together at the ankle with a length of strong string or rope (Sobel, 1983).

Python Pentathlon. All group members are seated on the floor in a line, and each student puts his or her legs around the waist of the person in front. The group is then instructed to move to a predetermined point (Rohnke, 1977).

Art of Listening. Participants are seated in pairs, back to back. One is given a pencil and a blank sheet of paper and the other a piece of paper with a geometric design. This individual then instructs the other in re-creating the design. The person receiving instructions is not allowed to ask questions.

Knots. All players stand in a circle, shoulder to shoulder, and then grasp the hands of two others, one with each hand. Players are not to grasp the hands of the persons next to them. Now, untie the knot. Pivoting of hands without breaking the grasp is permissible (Fluegelman, 1976).

The Circles. Group members stand in a circle, facing each other's backs. They place their arms around the person in front of them and their hands on the waist of the person in front of that person. First they all try to walk, then each sits on the knees of the person behind without breaking the circle. To make it easier, have the first person sit on a chair and build the circle from there.

The Clock. Participants form a circle facing inwards and join hands. Shuffle or side-step clockwise or counterclockwise until one person is at a predetermined point. Speed is critical, as is maintaining the circle. Have the participants face outward to vary this activity (Rohnke, 1977).

Discussion

Though no formal measures were used to evaluate the group, some notable outcomes were observed. As the group progressed, participants became more skillful and successful in completing assigned tasks. Children were actively involved in the group, seemed eager to participate, and often requested permission to re-do activities at the end of sessions. Less arguing and blaming behaviors were noted as the group progressed. Processing became more personal and there was more self-disclosure with each session.

The processing component of the group, of course, was the most crucial element. The predetermined discussion format was instrumental in leading this group. A clear emphasis on the dynamics involved in problem solving, as opposed to success and competition, was essential in producing meaningful processing. Participants shared points of view as a way to model appropriate cooperation and communication skills. Clients were asked to state what they would do differently during the next attempt to complete the task, thus helping to establish a pattern that would be useful for dealing with problems in everyday life. Clients were engaged in a problem-solving sequence, which could be generalized to other problems. Children assessed, took ownership of their contribution, committed themselves to an alternative course of action, and applied it in the succeeding round. When done verbally, this process helped to establish communication skills and lent support and encouragement, which fostered cooperation.

The second round of processing (Step 5) allowed the group to find parallel group solutions to other problems the students faced. On one occasion, when using the carabiner walk, the group decided to exclude an uncooperative member from the activity. Their solution was similar to divorce or sending a child to the other parent, because they could not resolve the problem. After discussing this theme, the group reintegrated the excluded child and completed the task with greater ease.

We found a group size of 8 to 10 students ideal for discussion purposes. When the group size was smaller, there was a paucity of ideas and perceptions for discussion because of absences. When used with larger groups (up to 22 students), the processing suffered because the facilitator was unable to engage each student in depth and tend to all participants in timely fashion.

In summary, this 9-week activity group—designed to improve client problem solving, communications, and cooperation skills—was fun, well received by clients, and effective in improving skills.

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Efficacy of Counseling Services in Decreasing Behavior Problems of Elementary School Children

**Harriet C. Cobb
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The maintenance of discipline in the classroom has always been a high priority for most school administrators and teachers, and recent Gallup Poll statistics reveal a nationwide "back to basics" movement that has reduced everyone's tolerance for classroom disruption (Brodinsky, 1977). The development of reading, writing, and arithmetic competence is incompatible with a chaotic classroom. Parents have now joined the ranks of those concerned about creating a more "studious" classroom environment, and any professional who can help teachers with their discipline problems would be a welcome addition to the school program. Although part of the answer can be found in training teachers to be better classroom managers, the elementary school counselor should be a natural ally in the teacher's struggle with behavior problems; such problems for many children extend well beyond the classroom.

A variety of counseling and consultation interventions have been found to have a measurable impact on teacher-assessed behavior problems (Fortune, 1975; Lewis, 1970; Marchant, 1972; Palmo, 1972; Sugar, 1975). It should be noted, however, that in most intervention studies, teachers, who must necessarily be aware of treatment onset, are also called on to judge subsequent behaviors. The position that we have taken is that teacher judgments are probably more useful in deciding the efficacy of an intervention than those made by an external observer (although their awareness of intervention may contaminate judgments); such judgments should be cross-checked by ratings made by a naive classroom observer for their objectivity.

The purpose of the present study is to assess the effectiveness of a program intended to improve classroom climate and conduct. To assess program impact, both teachers and an observer (who was unaware of any intervention) rated classroom behavior problems before and after program implementation.

Method

Participants

The participants were 90 fourth and fifth graders, 43 boys and 47 girls, who were attending four self-contained classes of a rural elementary school in the extreme western portion of Virginia. The children were almost exclusively from lower or lower-middle class homes, and all but two were White.

Measures

Thirty-five items were selected from the *Behavior Problem Checklist* (Quay & Peterson, 1967) to measure the prevalence of behavior problems before and following intervention. This instrument, when used in its entirety, requires raters to judge the presence and severity of 55 commonly observed behavior problems (i.e., symptoms) typical of some school-age children. The problems are scaled on 3-point Likert continua, and ratings on each can range from zero (problem is absent for the child under observation) to two (item constitutes a severe problem). The rated symptoms tend to group themselves into three factor analytically distinct categories of disturbance: conduct disorders, such as disruptiveness or tantrums (Factor I); personality problems, such as hypersensitivity or anxiety (Factor II); and behaviors suggesting immaturity or inadequacy, such as attention-seeking (Factor III). The reliability of the checklist and its factor pattern have been repeatedly demonstrated in the literature (e.g., Grieger & Richards, 1975). Scores on each of the three factors are obtained by summing the ratings across the factorially homogenous individual scales.

The items selected for the present study were those that could be readily observed in the classroom setting. They included 14 conduct disorders, 13 personality problems, and 8 immaturity-inadequacy symptoms. Because the observations were made by two observers (a classroom teacher and an independent observer) on three occasions (a pretest and two posttests), two kinds of reliability estimates were obtained—objectivity and stability. The objectivity estimates were made for each factor and occasion by correlating the scores obtained from teacher judgments with those from the independent observer. Because the teacher and observer scores were eventually averaged, these reliability estimates were corrected according to the Spearman-Brown formula. Cross-time stability estimates were obtained by correlating the averaged ratings on one occasion with those obtained on another. The resulting reliability figures for the revised 35-item checklist were computed and can be obtained from the senior author.

Procedure

Data collection. Four female classroom teachers, two at the fourth- and two at the fifth-grade level, agreed to participate in the study. Each was informed about the purpose of the investigation and the intervention plan, and each was trained to use the *Behavior Problem Checklist*. A female classroom observer who was unaware of the intervention plan was also trained to use the checklist. The independent observer was only told that the purpose of the observations was to help collect information about the prevalence of problem behaviors in fourth and fifth graders over a 4-month period. Teachers were cautioned not to inform the observer about any interventions that might be taking place in the interim periods.

Observations were made in all four classrooms on three separate occasions—a pretest and two posttests (i.e., posttest 1 and posttest 2). One fourth- and one fifth-grade class were randomly assigned to treatment group 1, a group that underwent intervention in the 8-week period immediately following the pretest observations; no intervention took place in the remaining classes (treatment group 2) until after the 8-week period following pretest 1 observations.

The counselor and teacher mutually agreed on which children (a subgroup of the class referred to as the Target Group) were to participate in additional small group counseling sessions. Their selection was based primarily on the results of the pretest observations and teacher judgments about children who could best work together. Those children with a number of severe problem behaviors were considered to be in need of more intensive intervention. Thirteen Group 1 and 15 Group 2 children were targeted in this manner.

Treatment

The classroom guidance sessions—(counselor led). The eight classroom guidance sessions led by the counselor during the intervention period were focused around the theme "Learning About Ourselves and Others." The general format was planned by the counselor in collaboration with the teachers in the study. The primary objective of the guidance unit was to increase student self-awareness and increase understanding of others' unique characteristics. Each session was approximately a half hour in length, and the teacher remained in the classroom during the activity. The teacher was encouraged to point out situations relevant to the guidance unit as they occurred during the school day.

Session One: The first session was spent focusing on having each child identify his or her strengths or accomplishments, and sharing with the others in a group discussion period.

Session Two: The second session dealt with identifying the student's individual interests. Checklists were given to the students who were asked to respond to items such as:

1. I like to read.
2. I would rather play a quiet game inside than baseball outside.
3. I like working in a group on a project more than working alone.

Children's responses were discussed and the characteristics of several occupations were matched with general interests expressed.

Session Three: The third session was composed of a values clarification activity. Several objects representing specific values (encyclopedia: knowledge; aspirin: health; heart: friendship; picture of home: family) were placed on a table in front of the class. The children took turns arranging the objects in an order reflecting their hierarchy of values. The reasons for the relationship were discussed as well as possible differences between their rankings and what their parents' rankings may have been.

Session Four: During this session students were introduced to the concept of goal setting as a means of self-improvement (the students in the small group sessions were "experts" on goal setting and had several helpful hints to offer to the rest of the class). The idea of reducing broad goals into smaller objectives was discussed, and each student was asked to set one goal for himself or herself, to be discussed the following week.

Session Five: This session was spent following up on the previous week's "goal setting." The students' progress toward their goals was shared, and ways to increase success were discussed.

Session Six: The fable from the Transactional Analysis Program about being kind to others with "warm fuzzies" and "cold pricklies" was told to the students. Their reactions to the story and related examples in their own lives were shared.

Session Seven: "Parent-Adult-Child" communication unit from the Transactional Analysis Program was represented to the students. They took turns role playing the different styles of communication and rehearsed the "Adult" response to the different situations presented.

Session Eight: The final session was devoted to discussing ways of using what they had learned in the previous sessions in order to increase positive feelings about themselves and others. Each child was asked to draw a picture illustrating something they learned in the past 8 weeks of guidance sessions.

Classroom guidance sessions—(teacher led). Each teacher spent a minimum of 40 minutes per week involving the class in selected guidance activities. Although space does not permit a detailed description of these activities, the interested reader is referred to Canfield and Wells (1976) *100 Ways to Enhance*

Self-Concept in the Classroom. Further information may also be obtained by writing the senior author.

Small group counseling sessions. The small group counseling sessions for each group followed a similar pattern. A modified version of Silverman's (1976) "Achievement Motivation" groups was used. Each child selected for the program was interviewed individually by the counselor before being entered into the program. The child was informed of the purpose of the program: to help children do their best in school by learning and practicing new ways of behaving. Each child was given the choice of whether to participate; all children interviewed remained in the program throughout the intervention period. In addition, a note was sent home to their parents describing the program and asking for their cooperation.

Groups composed of five to eight children met twice weekly for approximately 30 minutes each session for a total of 8 weeks. During the first session, the children were given a simple checklist on which teachers would indicate whether the daily goals were met. The form listed 11 specific goals common to all the children (e.g., take-home assignments, books, and notebooks needed) and provided space for one additional personal goal. The first three goals were to be checked off by the parents, and the remaining nine items were to be checked off by the teacher on a daily basis as having been met or not met. At that time each child, with the help of the counselor and the other students, selected a personal goal. These personal goals reflected one or more major problem behaviors noted on the *Behavior Problem Checklist*. The other goals were selected by the teacher and counselor as being desirable for all children in the classroom. The items on the Daily Progress Report were checked off at the end of each day by the teacher and the reason for zeroes was to be clearly explained to the student.

Each week a goal for a specified number of check marks to be accumulated by each member was established by the group. Each child who reached the goal was allowed to participate in a reward session during the last half of the Friday group meeting. The rewards chosen by the students included playing indoor-outdoor games, viewing films, listening to music, or preparing some type of snack, such as popcorn. Children who did not achieve the appropriate number of points remained in their classroom during the reward session.

Most of the group time was spent discussing ways to achieve the goals. Role playing and behavior rehearsal were used frequently as techniques for practicing skills. These major themes emerged during the sessions: developing good school work habits, learning appropriate assertive behavior, and dealing with conflicts. Children in one of the groups practiced relaxation procedures under the supervision of the counselor in separate sessions. The children were also encouraged to support each other in their efforts to achieve their goals.

Consultation with teachers. The counselor met with each teacher at least twice weekly during the intervention period. Problems and issues such as handling disruptive behavior and increasing on-task behavior were discussed. Alternatives such as changing seating arrangements or rearranging class assignments were presented. The progress of the child in the small group sessions was monitored, and modifications were made when necessary.

Results and Discussion

Mean scores for all 90 participants broken down according to treatment group and *Behavior Problem Checklist* factor are shown as a function of measurement occasion in Figure 1. Similar means for the 28 target participants are presented in Figure 2. Both figures suggest that behavior problem scores declined markedly over time on all three factors. Moreover, the most obvious decreases occurred for each group following intervention (for Group 1, intervention occurred between the Pretest and Posttest 1; for Group 2, between Posttest 1 and Posttest 2). This pattern is particularly evident for the target participants depicted in Figure 2.

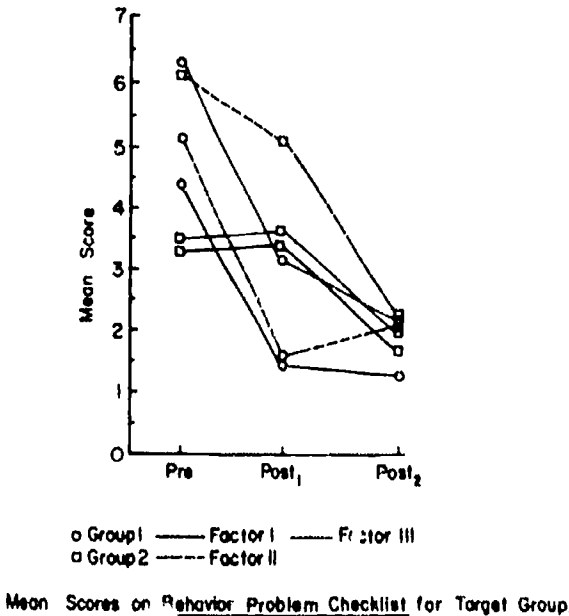
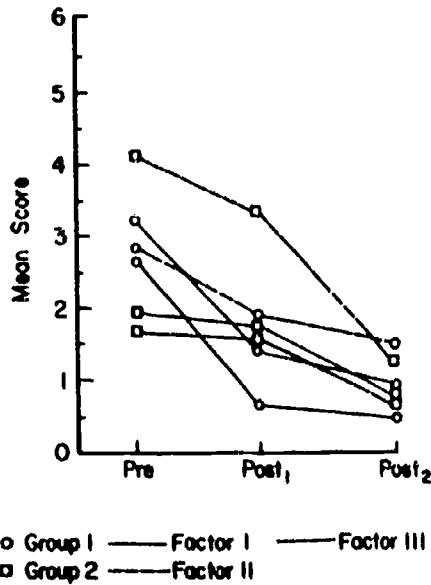


Figure 1



Mean Scores on the Behavior Problem Checklist for Total Sample.

Figure 2

A series of analyses were conducted to assess the statistical significance of the trends indicated in Figures 1 and 2. The pattern of significant ($p < .05$) gain scores was entirely consistent with the hypothesis that improvement in behavior on all three factors occurred after, and only after, treatment was instituted. Only the change on Factor I from Posttest 1 to Posttest 2 for the nontarget participants of Group 2 failed the significance test. A technical write-up of the actual analyses performed and tabled results can be obtained from the junior author on request.

Taken together, the results of the present study support the belief that counselor-consultation intervention can be successful in reducing the behavior problems of elementary school children. More specifically, the combination of group guidance, small group counseling, and teacher consultation seems to be a very effective method of intervention. Not only were major decreases in conduct, personality, and immaturity problem behaviors observed over the course of the study (see Figures 1 and 2), but also these decreases were statistically significant only when observations (i.e., testings) spanned treatment. In this respect, the data unambiguously support the efficacy of the intervention model.

A word of caution is in order, however, because as in previous studies the direct participation of teachers may have influenced the observations. We have reason to believe that teacher-observers wanted the program to succeed, and their enthusiasm may have exaggerated the actual effects of the treatment. But the importance of the caution must not be overemphasized. The objectivity of teacher judgments, as cross-checked by classroom observers who were unaware of treatment onset, remained high throughout the study, at least as far as Factors I and II were concerned. Contamination effects, if there were any, probably were confined to Factor III. It should also be noted that the independent observer ratings, ratings that by design could not be contaminated, were averaged with those made by teachers.

Contaminated observations or not, a favorable outcome was perceived by the teachers themselves. Perhaps this result alone is worthwhile. Not only have these teachers had a positive experience with elementary guidance but also they have new skills for coping with behavior problems—skills that they can continue to apply in their classrooms. An important implication for all elementary school counselors is the desirability of being able to help reduce behavior problems in the classroom in light of the current “back to basics” movement. It seems that a worthwhile endeavor for counselors would be to improve and refine their own skills in this area, so that they can effectively provide this highly valued service. One systematic method that counselors can use to aid teachers in meeting their disciplinary objectives has been described in this report; the results of the empirical inquiry suggest that this approach is effective.

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The Effects of Classroom Meetings on Self-Concept and Behavior

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Robert P. Sanche

During the 1970s, teachers in regular classrooms observed a steady increase in the number of children with personal, social, and behavioral problems in the schools (Gearheart & Weishahn, 1980). An undetermined portion of the increase may be attributed to the passage in 1975 of Public Law 94-142 (Education for all Handicapped Act of 1975), which required that children with special needs be placed in regular classrooms. Various other reasons for placing children with special needs in regular classrooms have been presented in the literature. The pervasiveness of the problem is well documented because 13 of the 14 annual Gallup Polls on the public's attitudes toward public schools (Gallup, 1982) have identified discipline as the most important problem in education in the United States. Although the nature of the problem is important, a more critical factor is the manner in which school systems provide needed support services for teachers and counseling services for children.

Traditionally, school administrators have responded to the increase in the numbers of behavioral problems in the schools by providing more specialized personnel who can give corrective or therapeutic services directly to individual children (Newcomer, 1980). As the need for more support services increases, there is pressure to provide counseling as a preventive measure in addition to providing traditional counseling to meet the therapeutic needs of children (Gazda, 1969; Purkey, 1970). Administrators increasingly expect that regular classroom teachers are the professionals who can best provide preventive or *developmental* (Newcomer, 1980) counseling as a supplement to therapeutic counseling.

In the socialization of children, the peer group plays a crucial role, not only in helping the development of the child's self-concept and social adjustment but also in acting as the most powerful agent affecting positive changes in the behavior of children (Gazda, 1969; Schmuck & Schmuck, 1971). Although clear evidence exists of the influence that both the teacher and the peer group can have on the behavior of individual students, it remains unclear precisely what structure and what process are most effective in preventing problematic behavior in the classroom. This study examined one specific group structure that can potentially influence the socialization of children—classroom meetings

(Glasser, 1969). These meetings involve entire classes and their teachers for the purpose of problem solving or discussion.

Classroom meetings have some distinct advantages over both individual treatment and other group counseling methods. Problem behavior occurs in the classroom and in the child's interpersonal relationships. Classroom meetings provide an intervention that addresses the problem in the social setting in which it occurs. In this setting, the teacher can ensure that problem behavior is treated with the caring, assistance, and support of the social peer group. In addition, intervention in the classroom can increase the child's feelings of being included in a supportive, accepting group rather than increasing his or her feelings of being singled out and excluded from the classroom group to receive counseling. The number of children receiving support can be increased, and professional counseling personnel then are able to concentrate on children with the most serious needs.

Dougherty (1980) stated that "classroom meetings are an important way to meet the [demand] . . . that guidance and counseling 'is for all kids, not a select few'" (p. 131). Certainly, as Hillman, Penezar, and Barr (1975) pointed out, "students who do not have serious problems can profit by learning how to make decisions, accept responsibility, get along with others, and . . . become adequate adults" (p. 761). Classroom meetings can provide the teacher with a method of assisting students in developing their own problem-solving skills and with a viable behavior management technique.

Research has indicated that group counseling is beneficial to elementary school children (Dinkmeyer, 1970; Kelly & Matthews, 1971). This study was intended to investigate the efficacy of providing preventive group counseling to entire classes of children through classroom meetings. A secondary purpose was to determine whether children's self-concepts would improve as a result of classroom meetings.

Method

Participants

The study involved 91 elementary school children in Saskatoon, Saskatchewan, Canada. One fourth-grade class in each of four schools was used, with two classes serving as experimental groups and two classes as control groups. Because classroom meetings, by definition, require intact classes of children and their regular teachers, random selection of children and random assignment of teachers to classes were not possible.

Selection of schools involved determining those that were comparable in size and were in communities with similar socioeconomic mixes. From this group, four schools were chosen in which fourth-grade teachers were judged to be using democratic principles in the classroom, to be generally accepting and nonjudgmental of students, and to be interested in participating in the study.

Instruments

Two measurement instruments, the Pupil Behavior Rating Scale (PBRs) (Lambert, Hartsough, & Bower, 1979) and the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (P-H) (Piers, 1969), were completed as pretest and posttest measures of behavior and self-concept, respectively, for the 91 children in both the experimental and control groups. Two rating scales, the Classroom Meeting Behaviour Rating Scale (CMB) and the Classroom Meeting Self-Concept Rating Scale (CMSC), were developed for the study. The CMB is a measure of interpersonal behavior during classroom meetings. It consists of 10 items that allow teachers to rate children on classroom meeting behaviors such as attentiveness, tolerance for the views of others, tact and manners, participation, obedience to rules, and ability to achieve or participate in the consensus of the meeting. Each item is scored on a 5-point scale ranging from *almost always* to *almost never*. Sample items include "refuses to agree, prevents consensus," "tactless, rude, socially inappropriate," and "behavior often requires a review of rules or removal from the meeting."

The CMSC is a measure of classroom meeting self-concept; that is, children's perceptions of their value, status, role, and membership in the meeting groups. Examples of items from CMSC are "confident, able to make responses in opposition to the majority," "makes aggressive or angry comments," and "tends to lead discussions, offers comments that lead to further discussion." Teachers rate each child's behavior on a 5-point scale ranging from *almost never* to *almost always*. The split-half reliability coefficient is .88 for the CMB and .93 for the CMSC, both well beyond the .60 that Salvia and Ysseldyke (1981) considered a minimum standard. These instruments were also completed by the teachers as pretests and posttests for the 45 children in the experimental groups.

Procedures

Teachers in the experimental groups were given 5 hours of instruction in the theory and techniques of classroom meetings. Instruction included the use of videotaped demonstrations of both general discussion and problem-solving

classroom meetings. Ample time was provided for experimental teachers to ask questions and clarify procedures for classroom meetings.

Experimental groups participated in classroom meetings twice a week for 20 weeks. The control groups were given special activity periods involving the same amount of time that was spent on classroom meetings by the experimental groups. Although the activities provided during this time were regular school activities, the teachers presented these time periods to the control group as special times, to control for any possible Hawthorne effect. Thus, any relative changes found in the experimental group should have been the result of involvement in classroom meetings rather than the result of participation in a "special program."

Classroom Meetings

Classroom meetings were developed according to the guidelines established by Dreikurs (1957) and Glasser (1969) and as described by Dinkmeyer, McKay, and Dinkmeyer (1980), Dreikurs and Cassel (1972), and Dreikurs, Grunwald, and Pepper (1971). Two types of meetings were used: general discussion and problem solving.

Initially, all meetings were discussion oriented and involved such topics as feelings, friends, or subjects requiring imaginative thinking. Topics included "you are establishing a new city," "dreams," "you witness a UFO landing," and "you are moving to a new school and can choose your teacher."

After 4 weeks of meetings, both experimental groups seemed comfortable with discussions, and mutual respect among students seemed to have been established. Problem-solving meetings were introduced in the 5th week. They dealt with subjects that presented real problems to students or to the class. Topics included "gum chewing," "missing pencils," "rough behavior," and "lateness in returning to class after recess."

During the remainder of the treatment period, one discussion meeting and one problem-solving meeting were scheduled each week. The following procedures were used during classroom meetings:

1. Students were seated in a tight circle, and the teacher was part of that circle.
2. Children indicated that they wished to speak by raising their hands, and only one child spoke at a time.
3. Mutual respect and empathy were stressed. Children were expected to listen to others and to show respect for the contributions of others.
4. The leaders taught and acted as models by focusing on the positive and by using encouragement and feedback.

5. Skills such as good listening and attentiveness, speaking directly to the person being addressed, using eye contact and personal names, paraphrasing, and active and reflective listening were encouraged.
6. Although the teachers were initially quite directive, they attempted to be nonjudgmental and to offer opinions sparingly. It was stressed that there were no right or wrong answers.
7. Questions were directed only to those who raised their hands. At various points in each meeting, a question was presented to which each child in turn could respond or pass (not answer).
8. Children were taught to summarize at the end of general discussions. In problem-solving meetings, they were encouraged to explore various problem solutions before committing themselves to specific plans of action.
9. Solutions were chosen by consensus so that all members had agreed to try a solution before it was accepted. Solutions were reviewed to ensure that they were successful; if they did not work satisfactorily, another meeting was held.
10. Time guidelines were adhered to in order to conclude meetings while interest was high. Problem-solving topics were continued at the next meeting if consensus on a solution was not reached.

Data Analysis and Results

The intent of the study was to determine whether classroom meetings, as a form of group counseling, could be used to improve the behaviors and self-concepts of fourth-grade students. Before analyzing the data from the study, scores for the two experimental and two control groups were combined to form one group of 45 experimental participants and one group of 46 control participants. Because it was not possible to establish equivalent groups through random assignment of students, one-way analyses of variance (ANOVAs) were completed to determine whether the two groups differed on pretest PBRs and P-H means.

The groups did not differ significantly on pretest P-H means but they did differ significantly on PBRs means ($F = 7.71$, $df = 1, 89$, $p < .05$). An analysis of covariance was used to test for posttest differences between the experimental and control groups on the PBRs. Pretest PBRs scores were used as the covariate. Because no significant pretest differences in P-H means were found, the posttest P-H means were compared by a one-way ANOVA. Pretest to posttest means for behavior (CMB) and self-concept (CMSC) for the experimental group in classroom meetings were tested by one-way ANOVAs.

There was a significant difference ($F = 11.86$, $df = 1, 86$, $p < .05$) on posttest PBRs means in favor of the experimental group; that is, when adjustments were made for pretest differences between the groups, the posttest mean for the experimental group was significantly better after treatment. The students who participated in classroom meetings improved their behavior significantly more than did those in the control group. The students in the experimental group also showed significant improvement in behavior (CMB) during classroom meetings ($F = 116.07$, $df = 1, 86$, $p < .05$).

The experimental and control groups did not differ significantly on posttest P-H self-concept scores. The experimental group did show a significant improvement on pretest to posttest self-concept (CMSC) during classroom meetings ($F = 52.98$, $df = 1, 86$, $p < .05$). The experimental group did not improve on a measure of general self-concept (P-H), but they did improve significantly on a measure of self-concept during classroom meetings.

Discussion

Behavior

Experimental and control groups differed significantly, with the experimental group having higher scores on classroom behavior (PBRs). Children participating in meetings improved significantly in ratings of classroom behavior. In addition, significant improvement in teacher ratings of behavior in classroom meetings (CMB) was found. The results indicated that classroom meetings were effective in improving children's behavior in meetings. The results also indicated that improvement in behavior was carried over from classroom meetings to the larger classroom setting.

Because the teachers who conducted the classroom meetings also administered the CMB, CMSC, and PBRs, bias in their ratings was possible. The treatment in this study—the classroom meeting—made it necessary to use intact groups of children and their teachers. In future studies, provisions should be made for a second teacher or counselor to participate in the classroom meetings and to rate the children independently on the three scales.

Teacher observations suggested that children in the control groups did react to the presentation of a special time by displaying anticipation and excitement. Because both the control and experimental groups had the perception of involvement in a special activity, the improved behavior observed can be considered a result of classroom meetings rather than a result of participation in a special program.

Self-Concept

Self-concept, as measured by the P-H, did not differ significantly between experimental and control groups and did not increase significantly for the experimental group after treatment. Self-concept, however, in the classroom meeting (CMSC) did increase significantly after participation in meetings.

It is possible that the multifaceted nature of self-concept (Coopersmith, 1967; Purkey, 1970) may have accounted for the lack of change in general self-concept as measured by the P-H. Because overall self-concept is generally considered to comprise situation-specific aspects, "global measures may not be valid when applied to more specific facets of self-concept" (Boersma, Chapman, & Battle, 1979, p. 433). A general measure of self-concept, such as the P-H, may have been too broad to reflect changes resulting from the classroom meeting intervention because changes in several situation-specific aspects would be necessary before changes in measured, general self-concept became evident. This possibility is also supported by the finding that the measure of self-concept in the classroom meeting (CMSC), which is situation-specific to the study, significantly increased, whereas the measure of general self-concept (P-H) did not. Furthermore, a longer period of treatment may have been necessary for increases in specific aspects of self-concept to be apparent in global self-concept.

Implications

The results of this study suggest that classroom meetings have potential not only as a treatment technique for children with behavioral problems but also as a technique in the prevention of problem behavior. Komechak (1971) stated that it is "vital that the teacher follow up on gains made [in counseling] by helping the child transfer these learnings [to classroom living]" (p. 14). This extension of counseling to the classroom can be encouraged by the involvement of the teacher and the peer group in both processes. Classroom meetings also seem to be effective means of providing preventive counseling to entire classes of children by enhancing their problem-solving skills, their decision-making skills, their acceptance of responsibility, and their interpersonal skills.

Classroom meetings seem to be a cost-efficient approach to providing more preventive counseling for children. Some counseling techniques presently offered through individual or small-group approaches could be provided in larger groups, resulting in the need for fewer group leaders. Intervention to diminish problem behavior could be provided more often at an earlier stage, reducing the need for subsequent expensive special placements. Furthermore,

the professional counselors' time could be reserved for children with more pressing needs. Such an approach would allow counselors to use their skills to work with more seriously disturbed children and to train and support teachers in implementing classroom meetings. Classroom meetings seem to have significant potential for providing preventive counseling services to large numbers of children through their regular classroom teachers.

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Chapter 9

Counseling Issues Related to Children's Behavior in a Changing World

Issues for elementary school counselors to consider about children's behavior in a changing world:

1. Discuss how school environment effects student behavior. What changes in the school environment might create positive changes in student behavior?
2. How can elementary school counselors use group counseling to improve student behavior in the classroom?
3. Elementary school counselors often use behavior management techniques to help children with behavior problems. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of using behavior management techniques with children.
4. Several parents have informed you that they are having difficulty handling the misbehavior of their children at home. How would you help these parents to improve the behavior of their children?
5. What are some activities elementary school counselors might include as part of teacher and parent group sessions on improving children's behavior?
6. Why is it difficult for an elementary school counselor to change children's classroom behavior through individual counseling in the counselor's office?
7. How would you respond to a teacher who says, "Children's behavior is getting worse and worse. I'm getting out of teaching as soon as I can?"
8. How can elementary school counselors use video technology to improve children's behavior in the classroom?
9. Develop an inservice training program that is intended to help teachers reduce behavior problems in the classroom. How do you feel about elementary school counselors involving themselves in this kind of inservice training?